

Avocado

Allan B. Woolf¹, Anne White¹, Mary Lu Arpaia² and Kenneth C. Gross³

¹HortResearch, Mt Albert Research Centre, Auckland, NZ

²Dept. of Botany and Plant Sciences, U.C. Kearney Agricultural Center, Parlier, CA

³Produce Quality and Safety Laboratory, USDA, ARS, Beltsville, MD

Scientific Name and Introduction: The avocado originated in Central America and southern Mexico. The Aztecs considered avocados an aphrodisiac and called it *huacatl*, meaning testicles, referring to the fruit's shape and the way they hang from the trees. In Chile, Peru, and Ecuador it is called *palta*, an Incan name. Spanish-speaking people also call it *aguacate*, *cura* or *cupandra*. They are known as *abogado* in Spain and as *avocat* or *avocatier* in France. Historically, the avocado has also been referred to as alligator pear, vegetable butter, butter pear and midshipman's butter.

The avocado is botanically classified into three races: 1) West Indian (WI), *Persea americana* Mill. var. *americana* (*P. gratissima* Gaertn.), tropical with large variably shaped fruit and lower oil content; 2) Mexican (MX), *P. americana* Mill. var. *drymifolia* Blake (*P. drymifolia* Schlecht. & Cham.), semi-tropical with smaller elongated thin-skinned fruit and higher oil content; and 3) Guatemalan (G), *P. nubigena* var. *guatemalensis* L. Wms., subtropical with mostly round thick-skinned fruit and intermediate oil content (Bergh and Lahav, 1996). Many of the commercial cultivars are hybrids of the three races. There is great variability in fruit traits not only between races but between cultivars within a race. One of the most distinct differences between cultivars is the peel color when ripe. The peel of some cultivars changes from green to black or purple with increasing maturity or ripening.

Avocados are available year-round in the U.S. and are supplied by two major US-producing areas; California (90%) and Florida (10%). Fruit (mainly 'Hass') are also imported from (in approximate order by volume); Chile, Mexico, Dominican Republic, New Zealand, Bahamas and Jamaica.

There are many cultivars of avocados grown commercially in the U.S., and they come in assorted sizes and shapes. The primary California cultivar is Hass, a G-MX hybrid that accounts for approximately 95% of the planted acreage. Other cultivars include Bacon, Fuerte, Gwen, Lamb Hass, Pinkerton, Reed and Zutano. With the exception of 'Reed,' which is believed to be entirely of the G race, the other cultivars are considered to be primarily G-MX hybrids. 'Hass' accounts for 80% of avocado consumption in the U.S., and is the main focus of research and development. The main Florida cultivars (West Indian and Guatemalan races and hybrids) are Simmonds, Nadir, Booth 8, Choquette and Lula.

Quality Characteristics and Criteria: For avocado, the major quality criteria used during grading are size, skin color, freedom from wounds, blemishes, insect damage (particularly due to caterpillar and thrip scarring), spray residues (most commonly copper) and other contaminants on the skin. When ripe, the key issues are absence of disease (body rot and stem end rots), physiological disorders (flesh graying), and physical damage (bruising). Many of these quality factors are cultivar-dependent and consumer preference for size, shape and color can vary from region to region.

While avocados from both Florida and California are high quality fruit, there are significant differences in size, texture, and flavor. Florida avocados are usually at least twice as large as those from California and often sell at a lower price. The smaller California avocados have a desirable nut-like flavor and a richer, creamier texture than the less oily Florida fruit, which are sometimes marketed as "lite avocados". These differences are mainly due to the fact that different horticultural races of the avocado are produced in California and Florida, respectively.

Avocados are one of the few fruit that contain significant quantities of oil; sometimes > 30% of fresh weight depending on cultivar and maturity. Oil content is a key part of the sensory quality. Oil quality is very similar to that of olive oil with a high proportion of the oil being approximately 75% monounsaturated, 15% saturated and 10% polyunsaturated fatty acids (omega 6). However, there is

variation with race, cultivar, growing region and season. The high mono- and poly-unsaturation, and low saturated content makes this a “healthy” oil in terms of effect on heart disease. In addition, avocado oil contains a range of other health-promoting compounds such as chlorophyll, carotenoids, α -tocopherol and β -sitosterol. These health factors, along with the absence of cholesterol, should be emphasized with consumers since avocados are perceived by some as an unhealthy or “fat” fruit. Extraction of oil from reject avocados is carried out in some countries for use in cosmetic products and for culinary purposes.

Traditionally, fruit produced in the U.S. have been “clip” harvested (peduncle cut to leave a “button” at the top of the fruit). However other producing countries (Australia, Israel, Spain, South Africa) are now “snap” harvesting ‘Hass’ fruit. The ultimate success of snap harvesting is dependent upon fruit maturity, growing conditions (rain) and cultivar (Arpaia and Hofshi, 1998).

Horticultural Maturity Indices: Avocado fruit % dry matter is highly correlated to fruit oil content and is the key maturity index used in California and worldwide (Lee et al., 1983). Minimum % dry matter ranges from 17 to 25%, depending on cultivar. In California, the minimum % dry matter at harvest for the major cultivars are: Bacon (17.7%), Fuerte (19.0%), Gwen (24.2%), Hass (20.8%), Pinkerton (21.6%), Reed (18.7%) and Zutano (18.7%). In California, fruit are also released onto the market at predetermined dates based on dry matter and size for each cultivar. For example, the size/release dates for ‘Hass’ are: Size 40 and greater, November 28; Size 48, December 12; Size 60, January 2; and Size 70 or smaller, January 16. Florida avocados have lower oil content (3 to 15% oil) and are generally harvested at a specified calendar date and weight or size.

Avocados can be held on the tree for many months after they are physiologically mature (will ripen if harvested) because they do not ripen until they are harvested. However, time-to-ripen does decrease with increasing time on the tree. Freshly harvested avocados tend to have “green” skins although ‘Hass’ fruit that are harvested late in the season may have some skin darkening at harvest. The peel of ripe ‘Hass’ and ‘Lamb Hass’ avocados should have a dark, purple-black or black skin while green-skinned cultivars remain green when ripe. Avocados are ripe when the fruit yields slightly to light finger pressure. Pulp color, texture and flavor when ripe are cultivar-specific.

Grades, Sizes and Packaging: California avocados are packed in single-layer 12.5 lb (5.67 kg) flats or trays (single-layer), 2-layer 25 lb (11.34 kg) lugs and 25 lb (11.34 kg) volume-fill boxes. RPCs (Returnable Plastic Containers) are used increasingly. There is also increased usage of pre-packed units such as polyethylene containers (“clam shells”) or mesh bags. For Florida avocados, the common packages used are: single-layer, 13 lb (6.12 kg) flats; 2-layer, 27 lb (12.47 kg) lugs; 35 lb (15.88 kg) cartons and 10 lb (4.54 kg) natural packs.

California avocados are graded as No. 1 or No. 2. Florida avocados are graded as U.S. No. 1, U.S. No. 2 and U.S. Combination. However, only some Florida varieties are graded, while the others are marketed as unclassified. In California fruit are weight sized into the following categories: 20 (18.75 to 22.0 oz; 532 to 624 g); 24 (15.75 to 18.75 oz; 447 to 532 g); 28 (13.75 to 15.75 oz; 390 to 447 g); 32 (11.75 to 14.0 oz; 333 to 397 g); 36 (10.5 to 12.5 oz; 298 to 354 g); 40 (9.50 to 11.50 oz; 269 to 326 g); 48 (7.50 to 9.50 oz; 213 to 269 g); 60 (6.25 to 7.50 oz; 177 to 213 g); 70 (4.75 - 6.25 oz; 135 to 177 g); and 84 (3.75 to 4.75 oz; 106 to 135 g) count for 25 lb packs, and half these values for flats (or single layer trays). Florida fruit are packed by count. Regulations specify that the pack shall be at least fairly tight and that the weight of the smallest fruit in any container shall not be less than 75% by weight of the largest fruit in the container. Commonly used counts for Florida packages are 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 12, 14, 16, 18, 20, and 24 count.

Pre-cooling Conditions: Ripening and associated softening of avocados can be delayed by cooling soon after harvest. This is critical where long storage periods are required, or where field temperatures are high, > 25 °C (77 °F). Forced- or passive air-cooling is generally carried out as rapidly after harvest as possible, within 24 to 48 h or sooner is recommended. Hydro-cooling of ‘Hass’ is also used

commercially. Recommendations as to the target temperature (prior to packing) vary between 5 and 15 °C (41 and 59 °F), and may be influenced by the emphasis on whether fruit should be graded with condensation or not.

Optimum Storage Conditions: Optimum storage conditions vary by cultivar, growing conditions, time in the season (maturity) and length of storage required. However, in general, unripe avocados should be stored at 5 to 12 °C (41 to 54 °F) with RH of 85 to 95%. Optimum storage temperatures for ‘Hass’ are 5 to 7 °C (41 to 44.5 °F) for early season fruit and 4 to 5.5 °C (40 to 42 °F) for late season fruit. After 3 to 4 weeks storage, ‘Hass’ fruit quality is reduced, and storing fruit for > 6 weeks remains a challenge.

Increased physiological disorders, eg., chilling disorders and uneven ripening, and rots result from sub-optimal storage temperatures. Therefore, it is important to maintain the appropriate temperature for unripe fruit, and to stack containers to allow for proper air circulation and temperature control.

Controlled Atmosphere (CA) Considerations: CA storage is most commonly used for transporting fruit to more distant markets in refrigerated shipping containers. The atmosphere used and technology for controlling the atmosphere varies between shipping companies. Generally O₂ levels of 2 to 5% (or possibly as high as 10%) + 3 to 10% CO₂ are used. The primary benefit of low O₂ is that of delayed softening, and reduction of respiration and ethylene production at standard storage temperatures. Elevated CO₂ may delay softening and reduce sensitivity to external chilling injury and allow lower storage temperatures (Faubion et al., 1992). Low O₂ injury may appear as irregular brown to dark brown patches on the skin and may additionally cause diffuse browning of flesh beneath affected skin. CO₂ atmospheres above 10% can be detrimental by leading to discoloration of the skin and development of off-flavor, particularly when the O₂ concentration is less than 1%. Reducing ethylene levels < 1 µL L⁻¹ by using ethylene scrubbers during CA storage may provide additional benefits for retarding ripening and decreasing the development of internal “chilling injury” (Faubion et al., 1992).

Alternative Technologies for Long-term Storage.

1-MCP Treatments: Use of 1-MCP (1-methylcyclopropene) is in the experimental stage and should be used with caution. Application of 1-MCP to avocados delays ripening and thus reduces internal chilling injury (flesh graying, vascular browning) which is associated with ripening during storage where storage times are long, or temperature management is poor (Pesis et al., 2002). The optimum treatment conditions are likely to be in the area of 50 to 100 nL L⁻¹ at about 6 °C (43 °F) for 18 to 24 h. For ‘Hass,’ 1-MCP treatments will have benefit where fruit are stored for > 4 weeks. However, for other cultivars that exhibit higher levels of internal chilling injury at even short storage times, then 1-MCP may be of more benefit. Care should be taken since applying higher concentrations may result in excessive delays to softening and ripening which are likely to in turn increase disease incidence. 1-MCP does not reduce external chilling injury (skin blackening) of ‘Hass’ avocados.

Step-Down Temperatures: The other key technology for maintaining fruit quality (particularly internal chilling injury) proven over many years by the South African industry is the use of “step-down” temperatures (Vorster et al., 1987). Temperatures are typically decreased 1 to 2 °C each week during shipping, with the final temperature not < 3.5 °C (38 °F), with progressively lower initial temperatures as fruit maturity increases. These temperature regimes have been developed and refined over many years and have resulted in a protocol for each cultivar for differing times in the season and growing region.

Retail Outlet Display Considerations: Avocados are best ripened at 15 to 20 °C (59 to 68 °F; Hopkirk et al., 1994). The ripening rate < 15 °C (59 °F) is relatively slow, and ripening at > 25 °C (77 °F) may result in increased decay, uneven ripening of the flesh and off-flavors. Like bananas, ethylene treatment can be used to “pre-condition” or “pre-ripen” fruit (see below). Avocados are very susceptible to bruising during softening (Arpaia et al., 1987), and thus should be handled carefully during transport and display. Any means of minimizing “squeezing” by customers will also improve quality. Since quality can decrease

rapidly during softening, it is best to check avocado ripeness every day and to display or use the ripest fruit first. If possible, ripe, or near-ripe fruit should be held at lower temperatures (1 to 6 °C; 34 to 43 °F; Young and Kosiyachinda, 1976) to reduce the proportion of fruit that become over-ripe, with concomitant increase in rots and other disorders. Avocados should not receive a water sprinkle or top ice.

Chilling Sensitivity: Avocados exhibit two forms of chilling injury, internal and external, which are generally induced by quite different storage conditions. Internal chilling injury manifests itself as a grayish-brown discoloration of the flesh, particularly at the base of the fruit around the seed. This can be associated with vascular browning which starts at the base of the fruit (rather than at the stem end, which is often associated with stem end rots). In ‘Hass,’ internal chilling injury tends to occur after about 4 or more weeks storage at about 6 °C (43 °F), but will be influenced by maturity and growing conditions. Cultivars differ in their susceptibility to this disorder, with some being very sensitive. Calcium levels are a possible explanation for differences in internal chilling injury (Chaplin and Scott, 1980). Another low temperature disorder, “pulp spot” may be observed in ‘Fuerte’ fruit where small dark spots can be observed in the flesh. Internal chilling injury is generally associated with softening of fruit during storage, and thus is increased by the presence of ethylene (Chaplin et al., 1983). Internal chilling injury is the key limiting factor to long-term storage of avocados.

External chilling injury occurs as irregular patches of blackening on the skin (similar to apple scald) that can be observed during storage, but that generally increase slightly in intensity after removal from cold storage. The damage is first seen in inner cell layers of the exocarp and then the outer layers of the skin (Woolf, 1997). In cultivars that naturally darken during ripening, such as ‘Hass,’ the damage will be less apparent after ripening, but may be discriminated as brown, corky skin tissue in ripe fruit. External chilling injury is generally induced by temperatures of < 3 °C (37.5 °F). However, fruit become less sensitive with increasing maturity, and ripe fruit are less affected. Fruit exposed to low temperatures may be of poor internal quality when ripe with a high incidence of rots and softening disorders (Woolf et al., 1995), but will have lower incidence of internal chilling injury (graying). For ‘Hass’ fruit stored for long periods at standard storage temperatures, eg., 6 to 7 weeks at about 6 °C (43 °F), a form of external chilling injury is expressed which is of a very similar appearance to that observed at low temperature. This form of external chilling injury will tend to be seen in fruit that are quite soft (nearly ripe) at the point of removal from storage.

Ethylene Production and Sensitivity: Rates of ethylene production are generally low for unripe avocados, < 0.1 $\mu\text{L kg}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$ at 20 °C (68 °F) but increase rapidly after harvest up to levels >100 $\mu\text{L kg}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$ at 20 °C (68 °F) when fully ripe. Therefore, ripe avocados should not be stored with fruits and vegetables that are sensitive to ethylene damage. Unripe avocados are very sensitive to ethylene. They should not be stored near ripe fruit or other fresh produce that produces more than trace ethylene. Ethylene exposure during storage accelerates ripening/softening and can increase incidence and severity of internal chilling injury and decay.

Ethylene Treatment (“Preconditioning” or “Preripening”): There is an increasing move at the retail level toward “ripe for tonight” programs that generally result in significant increases in sales. This is achieved by treating avocados with 10 to 100 $\mu\text{L L}^{-1}$ ethylene at 17 to 20 °C (62.5 to 68 °F) for approximately 48 to 72 (early-season), 24 to 48 (mid-season) or 12 to 24 h (late-season). This significantly reduces both the time to ripen (to 3 to 6 days, depending on cultivar and maturity), and also fruit to fruit variability in ripening. If fruit are stored prior to ethylene treatment, the duration of treatment required to achieve maximum rate of ripening is reduced. For ‘Hass,’ after 3 to 4 weeks of storage there may be relatively little benefit of ethylene treatment (particularly for later season fruit) since the time to ripen decreases during storage. Because heat production of avocados is much greater than many other fruit crops (see below), careful attention should be paid to air flow and temperature management during ethylene treatment and subsequent ripening. Palletized fruit may reach temperatures

of more than 30 °C (86 °F), with negative effects on ripe fruit quality. For this reason, ethylene treatment of palletized fruit should be carried out under forced-air conditions. During ethylene treatment, CO₂ levels should be maintained at less than 1 to 2% by either continual venting of the atmosphere, or full venting and ethylene re-injection if “shot” systems are used. Following ripening fruit should be pre-cooled to 5 °C (41 °F).

Respiration Rates:

Respiration rate of avocados is relatively high compared to many other fruit crops.

Temperature	mg CO ₂ kg ⁻¹ h ⁻¹
5 °C	20 to 50
10 °C	50 to 160
20 °C	80 to 300

To get mL kg⁻¹ h⁻¹, divide the mg kg⁻¹ h⁻¹ rate by 2.0 at 0 °C (32 °F), 1.9 at 10 °C (50 °F), and 1.8 at 20 °C (68 °F). To calculate heat production, multiply mg kg⁻¹ h⁻¹ by 220 to get BTU per ton per day or by 61 to get kcal per metric ton per day. Data are from Kader and Arpaia (2001).

Physiological Disorders: There is a range of physiological disorders of avocados (White et al., 2001) and most of these occur following long storage periods. The key disorders are flesh graying, vascular browning and pulp spot, which are all symptoms of internal chilling injury (see above). Where fruit are stored for excessively long periods the flesh may also fail to ripen evenly, and become increasingly susceptible to pathogens. The timing of expression of internal chilling injury and its severity depends on temperature management, initial ripeness, cultivar, production area, and fruit maturity. External chilling injury may occur if fruit are stored at low temperatures (0 to 3 °C; 32 to 37.5 °F) or for long periods (> 6 weeks) at standard storage temperatures (see above).

Postharvest Pathology: Rots of avocados are divided into two categories on the basis of their location (Snowdon, 1990). Stem end rots enter the fruit at the stem, or peduncle end of the fruit and move down the fruit resulting in discolored flesh, often with associated browning of the vascular strands (Johnson and Kotze, 1994). Body rots invade through the skin and are generally manifested as circular brown to black spots that may be covered with spore masses in the later stages of infection. Decay penetrates through to the flesh resulting in discrete areas of discolored flesh. In cultivars that darken when ripe (‘Hass’), rots may be less obvious externally. Rots are rarely observed at harvest or during storage but can increase rapidly with fruit softening. Where infection pressure is high and physical damage to the skin occurs prior to storage, small soft black circles of infection (“measles”) can occur during storage. These generally spread rapidly outwards after removal from storage.

The causal organisms can vary with growing environment and country. The following pathogens (in order of frequency) have been isolated from decayed California avocados; *Colletotrichum*, *Dothiorella*, *Alternaria* and *Phomopsis spp* (Smilanick and Margosan, 2001). Differences in the pathogens responsible for decay exist among countries, eg., New Zealand versus Australia (White et al., 2001; Everett, 1996).

Pre-harvest control methods for postharvest fungal decay include good orchard sanitation (removal of mummified fruit and dead wood) and effective pre-harvest fungicide application such as copper which is widely used in some countries (including Florida) where humid growing conditions prevail. Harvesting should not be carried out in the rain or when fruit are wet, and careful handling to minimize skin damage helps to reduce rots. Snap picking of fruit can reduce stem end rot incidence in dry periods but it can result in increased rots in humid growing environments or when harvested in wet conditions.

Perhaps the most important area for reducing rots is that of maintaining good ripe-fruit quality by optimizing temperatures during handling, storage, transport, and ripening. It is also critical not to store

fruit for long periods. Ripening fruit at lower temperatures, eg., 15 to 20 °C (59 to 68 °F) can lead to significant reduction in rots compared with higher temperatures (Hopkirk et al., 1994). Storing 'Hass' fruit for 1 to 3 weeks can also reduce rot incidence (as compared to non-stored fruit), as can ethylene treatments, which both synchronize and hasten ripening. Postharvest fungicides (prochloraz, benlate (benomyl) and thiabendazole) are used in some countries, but these are not registered for use in the U.S. (Darvas et al., 1990). Research on biological control agents is being carried out in South Africa, New Zealand and Australia.

Quarantine Issues: Issues relating to this will vary according to the marketplace and country of origin, and guidance should be sought from the Department of Agriculture. If avocados are grown in fruit fly infested areas, significant quarantine issues will arise. Methyl bromide treatment is an APHIS approved treatment for Mediterranean fruit fly, but results in a significant reduction in fruit quality. Because avocados do not tolerate standard high temperature disinfestation treatments, eg., fruit core temperatures of 47 °C (117 °F) for 20 min, low temperature disinfestation is the most viable approach. Tolerance to temperatures which can be used for low temperature disinfestation can be imparted by pre-treatments at 38 °C (100 °F; eg., Sanxter et al., 1994; Woolf et al., 1995) or low temperature conditioning (Woolf et al., 2002). However, the only commercial disinfestation treatment in use is for Queensland fruit fly in 'Hass' avocados at 6 to 8 °C (43 to 46.5 °F) for 3 to 5 days followed by 16 days at < 1 °C (34 °F; Hofman et al., 2002). However, this low temperature disinfesting treatment may not be effective for all fruit fly species since cold tolerance varies.

Suitability as a Fresh-cut Product: Avocados are not currently marketed as fresh-cut products, but they are marketed as chunks, paste and as guacamole dips.

Special Considerations: None.

References:

- Arpaia, M.L. and R. Hofshi. 1998. Preliminary report on the feasibility of 'snap' harvesting 'Hass' avocados. Subtrop. Fruit News 6(2):7-9.
- Arpaia, M.L., F.G. Mitchell, P.M. Katz and G. Mayer. 1987. Susceptibility of avocado fruit to mechanical damage as influenced by variety, maturity, and stage of ripeness. Proc. World Avocado Congr., May 1987, Pretoria, Rep. South Africa. South African Avocado Growers' Assn. Yearbook 10:149-151.
- Bergh, B.O. and E. Lahav. 1996. Avocados. In: J. Janick and J.N. Moore (eds) Fruit Breeding. Vol. I. Tree and Tropical Fruits. Wiley and Sons, NY, pp.113-166.
- Chaplin, G.R. and K.J. Scott. 1980. Association of calcium in chilling injury susceptibility in stored avocados. HortScience 15:514-515.
- Chaplin, G.R., R.B.H. Wills, and D. Graham. 1983. Induction of chilling injury in stored avocados with exogenous ethylene. HortScience 18:952-953.
- Darvas, J.M., J.M. Kotze and F.C. Wehner. 1990. Effect of treatment after picking on the incidence of postharvest diseases of avocado. Phytophylactica 22:93-96.
- Everett, K.R. 1996. Postharvest diseases of avocados.
<http://www.hortnet.co.nz/publications/science/everavo1.htm>
- Faubion, D.F., F.G. Mitchell, G. Mayer, and M.L. Arpaia. 1992. Response of 'Hass' avocado fruit to postharvest storage in controlled atmosphere conditions. In: C.J. Lovatt (ed) Proc. 2nd World Avocado Congr., April 1991, Orange CA, pp. 467-472.
- Hofman, P.J., B.A. Stubbings, M.F. Adkins, R.J. Corcoran, A. White and A.B. Woolf. 2002. Low temperature conditioning treatments before cold disinfestation improve 'Hass' avocado fruit quality. Postharv. Biol. Technol. (In Press)

- Hopkirk, G., A. White, D.J. Beever and S.K. Forbes. 1994. Influence of postharvest temperatures and the rate of fruit ripening on internal postharvest rots and disorders of New Zealand 'Hass' avocado fruit. *New Zealand J. Crop Hortic. Sci.* 22:305-311.
- Johnson, G.L. and J.M. Kotze. 1994. Stem-end rot. In: *Compendium of tropical fruit diseases*. R.C. Ploetz et al. (eds) APS Press, St Paul MN, pp. 81-83.
- Kader, A.A. and M.L. Arpaia. 2001. Avocado. Recommendations for maintaining postharvest quality. <http://postharvest.ucdavis.edu/produce/producefacts/fruit/avocado.html>.
- Kosiyachinda, S. and R.E. Young. 1976. Chilling sensitivity of avocado fruit at different stages of the respiratory climacteric. *J. Amer. Soc. Hort. Sci.* 101:665.
- Lee, S.K., R.E. Young, P.M. Schiffman, and C.W. Coggins. 1983. Maturity studies of avocado fruit based on picking dates and dry weight. *J. Amer. Soc. Hort. Sci.* 108:390-394.
- Pesis, E., M. Ackerman, R. Ben-Arie, O. Feygenberg, X. Feng, A. Apelbaum, R. Goren and D. Prusky. 2002. Ethylene involvement in chilling injury symptoms of avocado during cold storage. *Postharv. Biol. Technol.* 24:171-181.
- Sanxter, S.S., K.A. Nishijima and H. Chan. 1994. Heat-treating 'Sharwil' avocado for cold tolerance in cold treatments. *HortScience* 29:1166-1168.
- Smilanick, J.L. and D.A. Margosan. 2001. Management of postharvest decay of avocado fruit. *Calif. Avocado Res. Symp.*, Oct. 2001, pp. 115-119, http://www.avocado.org/growers/growers_525.php?sd=growers.
- Snowdon, A.L. 1990. A color atlas of postharvest diseases and disorders of fruits and vegetables. Vol. 1, General Introduction & Fruits. CRC Press, Boca Raton FL, 302 pp.
- Vorster, L.L., J.C. Toerien, J.J. Bezuidenhout. 1987. A storage temperature regime for South African export avocados. *South African Avocado Growers' Association Yearbook* 10:146-148.
- Wang, C.Y. 1993. Approaches to reduce chilling injury of fruits and vegetables. *Hort. Rev.* 15:63-95.
- White, A., A.B. Woolf and P. Hofman. 2001. AvoCare assessment manual. ISBN 0-478-06826-3, pp. 66.
- Woolf, A.B. 1997. Reduction of chilling injury in stored 'Hass' avocado fruit by 38 °C water treatments. *HortScience*. 32:1247-1251.
- Woolf, A.B., C.B. Watkins, J.H. Bowen, M. Lay-Yee, J.H. Maindonald, I.B. Ferguson. 1995. Reducing external chilling injury in stored 'Hass' avocados with dry heat treatments. *J. Amer. Soc. Hort. Sci.* 120:1050-1056.
- Woolf, A.B., C.A. Cox, A. White and I.B. Ferguson. 2002. Low temperature conditioning treatments reduce external chilling injury of 'Hass' avocados. *Postharv. Biol. Technol.* (In Press)
- Young, R.E. and S. Kosiyachinda. 1976. Low temperature storage of ripe avocado fruit. *Calif. Avocado Soc. Yearbook*, pp. 73-76.

Acknowledgments: Some of the above information was taken from the previous edition of Agriculture Handbook Number 66, the Produce Marketing Association's "Fresh Produce Manual," the University of California - Davis website "Fresh Produce Facts" at internet address <http://postharvest.ucdavis.edu/produce/producefacts/fruit/avocado.html>, the Michigan State University Extension Information Management Program Database website at <http://www.msue.msu.edu/msue/imp/>, the California Avocado Commission website at <http://www.avocado.org/> and the University of Florida website at <http://edis.ifas.ufl.edu>. The authors also express their appreciation for input and comments on the manuscript by; Adel Kader, Joe Smilanick, Reuben Hofshi, Chris Yearsley, Laurence Eysers, Ian Ferguson and Linda Boyd.